TUR[illegible] SWITZERLAND.

BY

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FROM THE REPORT OF THE SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION
FOR THE YEAR 1870.

WASHINGTON:
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.
1872.

LECTURE ON SWITZERLAND.

By Alexander Dallas Bache.

[The following lecture on Switzerland, from the manuscript of Professor Bache, is here published for the first time to illustrate in connection with the foregoing eulogy his habit of observation and his facility of description. It presents, however, a lively sketch of one of the most interesting portions of the earth, whether considered from a historical or physical point of view, and we doubt not will be read with pleasure, especially by all who have been favored with a visit to the delightful region which it describes. The original notes from which the lecture was prepared were taken during the Professor's visit to Switzerland in 1837–'38. The foot-notes, exhibiting the present condition of the country, have been kindly furnished to us by the Hon. Mr. Hitz, Swiss consul general in this city.—J. H.]

Travelers relate that in certain conditions of the atmosphere a spectator standing upon the shore at Reggio, and looking upon the smooth waters of the Straits of Messina, sees suddenly rise before him, as if by magic, the walls, towers, palaces, domes, and streets of a city, in which mimic life goes on, men and animals moving noiselessly to and fro. The illusion is as complete as if the waters of the bay were a foundation upon which the genii of the lamp or of the ring had suddenly erected their magic structures. This is an extreme case of the ordinary illusion presented to those who, in a calm clear day, look at distant objects across a wide expanse of bay or river. Familiar forms are strangely distorted; level shores appear precipitous; the puny sloop swells into the size of a frigate; the fisherman's boat becomes a dismasted sloop, and its occupant a giant. Just so it is when in mental vision we attempt to look through an atmosphere disturbed by the habits and prejudices to which we are accustomed. Unreal towers and walls appear, and objects so lose their shapes that the most familiar forms escape recognition. Every country has its prejudices resulting from education, from all the influences, political, moral, social, and physical which surround and act upon its citizens. By these, in general, the observer of men and things is biased, and he who through the mists of *his* national or personal prejudices seeks to realize their just forms and proportions, may mistake the pigmy for a giant, the shallop for a frigate.

In estimating the institutions of the Old World we are prone to forget that the materials for our judgment are generally furnished by the opinions of those who are brought up under a totally different state of things from that which exists around us. The conclusions which we thus form may be the very opposite of those to which we would have come ourselves, had our own prepossessions furnished the inferences from the facts. In neither case, perhaps, would truth be arrived at, but in the

former the result may be deeply injurious, because leading to modes and habits of thought and action not in harmony with the peculiarities of our country.

Impressed with the importance to Americans of judging independently of the institutions of Europe, I formerly took occasion in another place to present a cursory view of the capital of Austria, as illustrating the effects of institutions the very opposite of our own. I design on this occasion to occupy your attention, without further exceeding the limits of a lecture than is absolutely necessary, by a notice of men and things in the only federated republic of Europe, Switzerland. I cannot pretend to set before you a panoramic view, but merely a few detached pictures in outline, so selected as to convey a tolerably fair idea of republican Switzerland as it appeared to an American. By contemplating it we shall have an example of the practical working of republicanism in the Old World, under various modifications, and with the disadvantages of being hemmed in on all sides by monarchies. We shall thus see the power of this system to civilize and to enlighten.

In the course of these sketches we shall find much bearing both directly and indirectly upon the objects which this Institute was established to promote. Upon the map of Europe Switzerland is so well defined by its boundaries that there is no danger of its escaping the sight on account of its small size. The Rhine constitutes nearly two sides of this boundary, from the point where the various streams from the glaciers of the Grisons have met to form a river into the lake of Constance, and from its exit thence to where the Jura Mountains turn its course to the Northern Ocean. The Jura separates Switzerland from France, and with merely an outlet for the Rhone, the Alps take up the line, dividing rugged Switzerland from the plains of Northern Italy.

The picturesque features of this country have furnished themes for the poet, the painter, and tourist. Under the influence of its snow-capped mountains, its shady and sequestered valleys, its rough glaciers, and its placid lakes, common-place men have warmed into something approaching to poetic fervor, and men of genius have poured forth their inspirations in verse or lofty prose. It is impossible to call up even in memory those scenes with all their attendant circumstances of romance—both nature and life so different from that to which we are accustomed—without feeling the heart and the imagination moved beyond their wont.

> "Who first beholds those everlasting clouds—
> Those mighty hills, so shadowy, so sublime,
> As rather to belong to heaven than earth,
> But instantly receives into his soul
> A sense, a feeling, that he loses not;
> A something, that informs him 'tis an hour
> Whence he may date henceforward and forever."

But who shall dare to speak in plain prose of scenes of which the muse of Byron has sung? The rugged nature of the country within this bound-

ary has had its effect in determining the character of institutions as well as of individuals. Small tracts of country are as completely separated by mountains of difficult passage, as by distance, differ in the modes and facilities of life, have different interests, and consequently separate organizations. The character of the topography has divided the country into many small states, and has produced striking differences in language and manners, in religions, social and political organization, in a country of not more than one-third the extent of Pennsylvania, and with about the same population of that entire State.

The present Swiss confederation consists of twenty-two sovereign states called cantons, the division of which, according to geographical position, includes also that of language.* Thus the north and middle of Switzerland contains the sixteen cantons where a dialect of the German is spoken, Zurich being the principal canton on the north, and Berne in the middle. To the west and south of the middle are the mixed German and French cantons of Neuchâtel, Friberg, and Valais; to the southeast the mixed German Romanic and Italian canton of the Grisons, or gray league, subdivided into its little sovereign states. On the southwest are the French cantons of Vaud and Geneva, and on the south of the middle the Italian canton of Tessin. While the language spoken by these people is determined by their proximity to those who speak it in its purity, their social, religious, and political institutions may almost be said to be uninfluenced by this circumstance. These are the results of other causes, many of which may be found in their history.

A Florentine scholar relating to me unpublished anecdotes of the horrors enacted by members of the far-famed family of the Medici, with Italian fervor broke out into this apostrophe: "Happy your great country, which has not the chains of a dark history to bind it to the institutions and manners of a by-gone age. Beware how you men of the present day sully the pure page which records the actions of your forefathers, of your Adams, your Franklin, your Washington."

The condition of a country at a past day must assuredly influence its present state as the summer's sun upon the snow-covered mountains of the Alps increases the autumnal flow of the river whose sources lie among them, or as the accumulation of the winter's snow upon the mountain's peak produces the summer's avalanche.

The history of the Swiss republics shows the circumstances which prepared and the impulses which gave existence to each, and a glorious history it is upon which to found progress in virtue and liberty.

Nearly in the center of Switzerland is a mountainous district which the Romans never reached, into which the bands of Attila never penetrated, and where no ruins of feudal castles exist to show that in the

*To wit: Zurich, Berne, Lucerne, Uri Schwyz, Unterwalden, (upper and lower,) Glarus, Zug, Friburg, Solerne, Basil, (city and country,) Schaffhausen, Appenzel, (both Rhodes,) St. Gallen, Grisons, Aargau, Thurgau, Tessin, Vaud, Valais, Neuchatel, and Geneva.

Middle Ages the inhabitants had a master. Divided, generally, by rocky barriers into separate communities, the people are in a degree united by the beautiful lake of the Forest cantons. These people, from the earliest records, have been, and are now, poor and pastoral. They form the democratic cantons of Schwyz, Uri, and Unterwalden, the nucleus of Swiss confederation. As early as the twelfth century they had a representative at the court of the Emperor of Germany, then the titular sovereign of Switzerland. Rudolph of Habsburg, whose castle was near the confluence of the Reuss and the Aar, the father of the founder of the house of Austria, was elected the representative of these peasants, and subsequently the family claimed the dignitary to be hereditary. This claim was never admitted, and to its impolitic enforcement by Albert of Habsburg, accompanied by circumstances of peculiar indignity on his own part, and of great cruelty and oppression on the part of his bailiff Gessler, was owing the revolution headed by Tell and his companions.

In pursuit of these same hereditary rights, Frederick of Austria, with his armies, entered the Forest cantons by their mountain passes, determined to overrun and crush them. He was successfully resisted at the pass of Morgarten by one thousand three hundred men, and nine thousand of his troops perished in this defeat. Thus was developed that fierce military spirit which has led the Swiss of every age to acts of the most devoted heroism.

From their wars with the dukes of Austria, the Swiss came out in 1412 with eight cantons recognized as independent. The appetite for war had been whetted by this successful resistance to oppression, and was carried to its height by the defeat of Charles the Bold of Burgundy, and of his magnificent troops, at Grandson and at Morat. The spoils of these great armies suddenly enriched the people. Labor was neglected and fell into contempt, and the profession of arms alone considered worthy occupation for a Swiss. The nation was for a time debased by a mercenary military spirit, and it required two centuries of bloodshed to impress the lessons necessary to their regeneration. The wars of the Reformation gave the last of this series of unhappy lessons, and at their close left the several cantons confirmed in their attachment to the same churches in behalf of which they had expended to no purpose their blood and treasure. In 1712 the confederation had attained nearly its present limits, but some of the present cantons were held as tributary provinces by the others. The Swiss spirit of former days burst forth when republican France began to proselyte by force of arms, and the constitution of the new Helvetic republic was presented at the point of the sword, and enforced by its edge. While the cantons of the plain were held by the French armies, pleasantly occupied in appropriating the savings of the aristocrats, and in giving liberty to the people by depriving them of their independence, the Forest cantons dared to declare that they had been free since the days of Tell, and Melchthal,

and Winkelried; that they required no lessons in self-government, and would resist invasion of their civil and religious rights to the death. Aloys Reding, a descendant of Rudolph, who had defeated Frederick of Austria at the pass of Morgarten five hundred years before, occupied again that Thermopylæ of his country. The mode of warfare had changed; personal strength has little advantage in contests with fire-arms; rocks and stones, though launched from mountain heights, are imperfect substitutes for cannon balls; numbers can no longer be counterbalanced by valor. Four thousand men, aided by their women and children, held this pass two days against forty thousand, but at last were forced to yield, and the Forest cantons received the constitution which they could no longer resist.

The days of the Jacobins passed; those of the First Consul and Emperor dawned, waxed, and waned, and Switzerland was the battle-ground on which the French, Austrians, and Russians contended, everywhere desolating the country with fire and sword. The pacification of Europe put an end to the horrible scenes then enacted, and the republics of Switzerland were left to reorganize themselves, affording in their rapid recovery from their desolate condition a strong evidence of the energy of the people. The organization then adopted, with some changes, exists at present. Forty years of exemption from war have obliterated the external marks of the misery of the country, but in the institutions of the different States the influence of their past history is still entirely visible.

The rough sketches which I must pass rapidly before you, to give some idea of the present condition of the country, will be taken from the French and German cantons—those which exercise the most influence upon Switzerland as it is, and as it will be.

Geneva, the oldest city of the confederation, is the frontier town upon the southwest. Its foundation dates before that of Rome itself. The inhabitants were among those Helvetians whom the fortune of war at last put at the mercy of the Romans who occupied the city with their legions. The Middle Ages found it a place of importance under the sovereignty of the Duke of Savoy; the see of a bishop, nominated by the duke, who was the temporal as well as the ecclesiastical ruler. History represents its moral and intellectual condition to have been low, its commerce moderate. Under the preaching of Farel in 1535 the citizens declared for the Reformation, and drove the bishop from their walls. In 1536, Calvin, a native of Picardy, came among them, and by his powerful preaching brought about a second reformation which changed entirely not only the face of society, but the habits and modes of thought and action of the people.

At a little distance from the water the shores of Lake Leman, or the Lake of Geneva, rise abruptly, and on this irregular ground, just where the Rhone issues from the lake, the city is built. The nature of the site thus divides Geneva into an upper and lower town. Below, and on the

steep streets occupying the slope, are the houses and shops of the tradesmen, and on the hill are those of the more wealthy citizens, once the Genevese aristocracy. The suburb on the opposite bank of the Rhone is joined by bridges to the old town, and rivals the hill-top, by its fine houses. The town is surrounded by ramparts, once of use to resist enemies and now affording pleasant promenades. These ramparts often protected the town in times gone by, but did not prevent its occupation by the French in 1798, and must necessarily yield to any enemy which has the means of bombarding the city. The conviction of their inutility has led the liberal governments of Berne and Zurich to raze these ramparts to the ground.*

The anniversary of an unsuccessful attempt, by the Savoyards, in 1602, to surprise the city, is still celebrated. Under cover of a dark night, and by the use of scaling ladders painted black the better to conceal them, a party of the enemy's pioneers had mounted the walls and penetrated into the town, when they were discovered by the careless watch. The citizens were surprised but not daunted, and issuing from their houses with such arms as they could seize, fell upon the invaders. The first gun fired from the ramparts carried away several of the scaling ladders, and prevented succor. In the morning the people assembled in the venerable church of St. Peter, when the pastor opened public worship by giving out the 124th Psalm; and since, on every 12th of December, the same sounds arise from the voices of many worshipers:

"If it had not been the Lord who was on our side, now may Israel say:
"If it had not been the Lord who was on our side when men rose up against us."

The University of Geneva was founded by Calvin, in 1564, and has always enjoyed a high reputation. In order to connect it advantageously with the grammar schools which prepare its pupils, the auditories have been provided, in which the character of the studies, the modes of teaching, and the discipline are intermediate between those of the school and of the university. Public instruction is under the control of the council of state, but while the impress of the best minds in this intellectual city is upon its higher institutions, the common schools are not, nor can they soon be made, what they ought to be. Like most of their fellow-republicans of the United States, the Genevese began their educational edifice at the top. They have yet to learn that parsimony in education under a popular government is waste; that unless instruction be really public it is better left entirely in the hands of individuals; that it is in vain to move the waters and then to pretend to say to the raised wave, thus far shalt thou go and no farther. The Genevese youth of families in easy circumstances find means of the best education: do they on this account effectively control those to whom the so-called republic gives less light? Witness the frequent revolutions in this city, and these not always without bloodshed. The government is founded

* The ramparts here referred to have all been removed, and Geneva at the present date (1871) presents no evidences of ever having been a fortified city.

on a popular revolution, and all attempts to impede the progress of popular institutions must in the end prove futile. If the light of education be denied to the people by their rulers, the revolutions will be bloody; and in no case can there be happiness or safety without the full exercise of popular rights, by a thoroughly educated people.*

Calvin, as head of the consistory, whose members then formed one-third of the council of state, governed Geneva, and impressed his own austere character upon the laws and manners. Public amusements were prohibited and private regulated. The number of guests to be invited to weddings of the first, second, and third class, was made the subject of municipal regulation. All dancing was interdicted, and when it was found that if the violin were played people would dance, the use of the instrument was prohibited. The absence of light amusements, together with religious feeling, naturally led to a greater use of those relaxations deemed lawful, and to the more active pursuit of science and literature by the better educated. Though times have changed in Geneva, in regard to religious creed as well as to amusements, the impress of former days is still strong upon it, and those who term it "a little Paris" do not look beneath the surface.

There is a curious mixture of the traits, manners, and modes of life of both France and England in this city, with a basis which is entirely Genevese. No less than ten thousand strangers, including, however, Swiss of other cantons, reside permanently in a town of thirty thousand inhabitants, and the number passing through it in a year is reckoned to be as great as the population itself. The influence of their manners is, of course, considerable, notwithstanding the exclusiveness of Genevese society. This exclusiveness is fostered among the ladies in the usual way, and among the men by clubs, literary, scientific, for conversation and mere amusement. It even begins among the children, who associate in little knots called Sunday societies, the members of which keep up with each other the intercourse of cousins. Many Genevese enter into commercial life abroad, and after accumulating wealth return to their home, few (except those who have migrated to the United States) becoming identified with foreign countries.

The most prominent business in Geneva is the manufacture of jewelry, and of watches. Each part of the watch is the special occupation of one class of workmen. Different portions of the works are made by peasants, but the finishing and putting together of the whole, as well as the manufacture of the cases, employ the artisans of Geneva. Nearly three thousand persons within the town, about one-fifth of the men, are occupied in the jewelers' and watch-makers' business, and twenty thousand watches are made annually. † The restrictive

* The school system of Geneva has undergone a material change, and public schools of all grades are liberally provided for.

† The census of 1870 show seven thousand persons engaged in watch-making, and upward of 200,000 watches made per annum.

duties laid upon these manufactures by neighboring countries, and especially by France, have led to a regularly organized system of smuggling, from which the government agents appear to derive a private revenue, and which is, therefore, very difficult to break up. It is said that a prefect of police of Paris, having bought at Geneva jewelry and watches to a considerable amount, the tradesman offered to deliver them in Paris for an additional sum much below the cost of carriage and the duties. The prefect made the agreement, and gave notice at the frontier custom-houses, describing the articles, and requiring even more than usual vigilance. The articles were, nevertheless, delivered to him according to contract, and on investigation he found that they had passed the frontier in his own baggage. This is one of the devious ways of trade which is, I fear, not peculiar to any nation, and which the better moral tone to be cultivated by associations like that which I now address may and should correct. To elevate the watchmakers' art, a society has been formed for the preliminary education of apprentices, and prizes for attainments in mathematics, drawing, and kindred subjects, are awarded to successful competitors.

The political changes in Geneva have been of an instructive kind. The people declared for the Reformation, and threw off the authority of the Duke of Savoy. Thus the popular will was the basis of the existence of the present government. The necessity for constant resistance to enemies without produced an easy concentration of power in the hands of a few, and by limiting the number of families from among the members of which the rulers were chosen, the government was rendered practically an aristocracy, not of rank, for the *patricians* of Geneva have always refused even this title, but of wealth and intelligence. The warfare of practice against principle has caused many revolutions, all leading to an extension of popular privileges, and though likened by the Emperor Paul, of Russia, to storms in a tumbler, their influences, direct and indirect, have spread widely. Between the year 1535, when the Bishop of Geneva was violently expelled from the city, and the year 1837, there had been five revolutions, and including two unsuccessful but violent popular commotions, and seven attempts to alter the government. And thus it must be until the end of the chapter, until privileges and rights are in harmony—until, in other words, Geneva is a true republic.

The chief points of dispute still are (unless recent events have settled some of them) that the sovereignty of the people is not formally acknowledged; that the representative council has no right to originate laws, but only to discuss those offered to them by the Council of State; that the right of petition is not recognized, and that the privilege of voting is possessed only by those who pay a certain amount of taxes; the amount being fixed so high as to exclude about two-thirds of the citizens who are over age from the polls.*

* All this has been changed by the constitution adopted May 24, 1847, the provisions whereof are essentially democratic.

Take the agitation of this canton in connection with the fact that in the eight cantons having a popular form of government, there were no revolutions in 1830, the last marked period in the progress of these governments, and the lesson becomes even more instructive.

How much do we not owe to our forefathers, who in establishing our republican system threw off the trammels of the Old World, and removed all such obstacles to our progress! How clear their view of republican institutions when compared with those of the men of Europe, even in the present day!

One of the most important engines in the improvement of Switzerland is the "Helvetic Society for public utility."* Its branches are scattered over the whole country, meeting frequently and maintaining a correspondence with the parent society through the medium of committees. Delegates from the local associations meet in different parts of the country in turn, and discuss questions connected with education, political economy, and the general welfare of the country. The reports made at these meetings and the information laid before them are printed and disseminated through the confederation by the branch societies. Independently of the influence thus exerted upon and through the reading community, the intercourse of enlightened men of different cantons is beneficial to the country, and the congregation of great and patriotic spirits has a good effect in the place of meeting. In the summer of 1837 this society met at Geneva, and then for the first time some of the statesmen of the German cantons met their fellow-citizens of the French frontier. The first meeting in the illuminated botanic garden, the mornings in the representative hall devoted to discussions, the general meetings for meals, the soirées and suppers, each served in their place, (for the Swiss, like the English, Germans, and Americans, love good cheer,) to promote the objects of the meeting. The subjects discussed in the council hall, show exactly the point to which the country has advanced. They were the importance of agricultural schools, and of schools for teachers, of saving-banks or funds, and the question whether those who in time of plenty (like the Pharaohs of old) hoard up grain to sell it at an advance in seasons of scarcity should not rather be considered benefactors of the public than objects of mob violence. The influence of high character was beautifully illustrated in one of these morning meetings. A warm debate had arisen upon the report of a committee proposing to establish schools under the direction of the society. The more the subject was discussed the further men's opinions appeared asunder. The keen politician of Geneva, with French vivacity, had made his declamation and ended with a phrase; the enthusiastic clergyman of Vaud, with somewhat of the old Calvin fire, had replied; the veteran philanthropist of St. Gall had laid down the doctrine by which he intended sturdily to abide. Union seemed impossible and discord probable, when there rose, near the president's chair, a man

* Gemémnützige Gesellschaft.

heavy in countenance and in person, with an embarrassed air and awkward address, the words of his first few sentences of miserably pronounced French coming forth slowly, and almost by stammering. The natural reflection of a stranger would have been, why does that stupid man rise; what light can he expect to throw upon the question? Not so, thought his countrymen. They knew the mind that occupied this unpromising exterior, and all listened with entire attention to Hess, the burgomaster of Zurich, while by his own moderation he stifled the flame which had been burning so fiercely, and by his good sense united all the friends of education on a common ground of conciliation and compromise. The denial of self shown by thus using a language which was not familiar to him produced, also, doubtless a favorable impression. Those who afterward heard the same speaker in his vernacular rousing an assemblage by his eloquence, or moving them to laughter by his wit, must have found it difficult to recognize in the accomplished orator the embarassed speaker of the representative chamber.

The canton of Geneva contains fifty-six thousand inhabitants, thirty thousand of whom live in the town. The adjoining canton of Vaud presents a striking contrast in this as in other respects, out of one hundred and eighty thousand people, only fourteen thousand being inhabitants of Lausanne, the capital, and only considerable town in the canton.* The people of Vaud pride themselves upon their ultra-republicanism, their orthodoxy in religion, their present moral and social condition, and the broad basis laid in their institutions for further improvement; the carrying out of the cantonal motto of "liberty and country." Their constitution declares the sovereignty of the people and the equality of all citizens in the eye of the law, guarantees individual liberty, the right of property, the inviolability of domicile, the freedom of the press, and the right of petition. It provides for the separation of the legislative, executive, and judicial authorities, a feature so universal in our constitutions that we are surprised to find it generally overlooked by the framers of the Swiss. All citizens have a right to vote at twenty-three years of age. The church is, as in all these countries, connected with the state, and is styled in the constitution the National Evangelical Reformed Church. Worship according to the forms of the Roman Catholic Church is guaranteed to some of the communes, and there this church is also connected with the state. The voluntary church system as it exists with us is almost unknown, and it would be difficult to imagine the first effects of severing church and state among a people where the connection has always existed; yet some of the clergy of Vaud look to the separation as conferring a desirable freedom upon their church. As evidences of the moral condition of Vaud may be mentioned that in 1836 there was

* The census of 1870 gives to the canton of Geneva a population of 89,416, whereof about one-half live in the city proper. According to the same authority, the canton of Vaud has a population of 229,596, and Lausanne 25,000.

but one criminal for every one thousand seven hundred and eighty inhabitants; while in Massachusetts, also an agricultural community, there was last year one criminal in one hundred and fifty; and counting only natives of the State, one in seven hundred and fifty. These people have laid broad and deep the foundations of improvement in an admirable system of public instruction, combining, as all are of one mode of faith, religious and intellectual culture. The law declares that the happiness of a people is to be found in good morals and good instruction, and that in a free country every citizen should have put within his reach an education fitting him for his rights and duties. It has not stopped at any point in public education, saying you of a certain class shall have such schools, and you such others, but has divided the schools according to the age and attainments of the children, and, for those on the threshold of active life, according to the probable future pursuit of the individual. Thus they have elementary schools, middle or industrial schools, a college, a university, and schools for male and female teachers. In a canton where suffrage is universal, the legislature has had the boldness to require that all children from the age of seven to sixteen shall be under instruction, unless capable of passing a certain examination. Parents who neglect or refuse to send their children to school are cited before the authorities and fined; in case of a repetition of the offense may be imprisoned, and thus deprived for a time of the rights of citizenship. Whether this provision can be fully executed or not yet remains to be seen; at present it is a salutary stimulus to the negligent. The ground of its adoption is, that universal suffrage requires universal education, and that as the law guarantees to citizens the one, it has a right to demand of them the other. The middle or industrial schools are colleges for business men preparing for the pursuits of commerce and the mechanic arts, and bearing the same relation to these pursuits that the colleges do to the professions of medicine, law, and theology. The canton has a school for the deaf and dumb, and one for the blind at Yverdon.

The prison discipline, like our own, puts in action the benevolent idea of reforming the delinquents; but the horror of solitary confinement which appears to exist in the mind of every one allied, even remotely, to the French has marred the system both in Lausanne and at Geneva. Happily the care which is taken in collecting the statistics of the prisons must gradually lead to a change. Finding that there are as many cases of recommitment now as under the old arrangement, they will see that with the gregarious system, even with work, there can be no reform.

This canton was the last scene of the labors of the great reformer in education, Pestalozzi. At Yverdon, on the shores of Lake Neufchatel, in a castle erected for war, but turned to purposes of peace, he terminated his active, beneficent, but stormy life. He was the Bacon of education. Adhering rigidly to the laws of induction, he changed the very basis of the sciences. He combined those extraordinary qualities

of the German character, simplicity, enthusiasm, rationalism, and its opposite, mysticism. As a practical teacher he has been surpassed by many of his followers, but he was undoubtedly the founder of a new school in education. Restless, and always dissatisfied with the results of his efforts, he began many times afresh, and to the last, with renewed hope of entire success. Unqualified to manage pecuniary matters, his mind was always oppressed with the details of the economy of his schools as soon as they became large. Prussia owes the present improved condition of her burgher or citizen schools—for her "schools for the poor"—are *poor* indeed to the precepts and examples of those who drew both from Pestalozzi. A school nominally conducted upon his principles is still kept up in the old castle, but resembles much the deformed copies from the same model which we have seen in this country.

Before leaving the southern part of Switzerland, let us pass for a few minutes into the canton of the Valais and among the Alps, not to admire scenery but to observe Swiss enterprise. Railroads are out of the question in such a country, and places for canals are rarely to be found, but improvements peculiar to the country take their places, and require both skill and originality.

In one of the narrow valleys of the Valais, a tributary to the Dranse (itself a branch of the Rhone) takes its rise in the melting snows of the glacier of Getroz. This mass of snow and ice is formed by the accumulation of snow upon two mountain flanks, which, descending and uniting in the gorge, are slowly pushed forward into the valley, melting as they advance, and feeding with innumerable rills the turbid Dranse. In the spring of 1818 the waters of the stream were very low, and as this circumstance had preceded a dreadful inundation of the valley of Bagnes in 1595, the peasants taking alarm moved up the valley to ascertain the present cause. They found that the fall of large blocks of ice from the glacier of Getroz, and of avalanches from the mountain sides, had completely dammed up the waters of the Dranse. The icy barrier is described to have been four hundred feet high, six hundred feet wide at the top, and three thousand feet at its base; the lake behind it was a mile and a quarter long, and at the barrier some fifty fathoms deep. The waters in this basin rose at the rate of two feet per day, and it was almost certain that finally, rising to a height capable of bursting the wall of ice which held them in, they would in their mighty rush sweep the valley to the very banks of the Rhone. The engineer of the canton, M. Venetz, made a bold attempt to prevent this disaster, which, if it did not entirely succeed, greatly diminished the dreaded devastation. A tunnel through the ice was commenced at a sufficient height above the swelling waters to prevent their reaching the laborers before its completion. Two sets of workmen labored day and night for nearly a month in its formation. When first finished it was not of sufficient size to prevent the rise of the lake, but widening and deepening

from the flow of water through it, in thirty-two hours it had drained off ten feet in depth of the lake, and in twenty-four hours more, twenty feet. More than one-third of the water had thus escaped when the action of the issuing cataract upon the base of the mound had so far weakened it by detaching large masses of ice, that the barrier was suddenly burst asunder. With a dreadful noise the liberated waters took their way down the valley in one mountain wave, carrying before them enormous rocks, the forest and hill-side, fields, fruit-trees and fences, bridges and châlets, and furrowing or covering the low grounds with the débris of the mountains. The destruction is represented to have been terrible, in all but that of life approaching that of the previous catastrophe. The energies of this simple people were but for a time paralyzed by this dire misfortune, and means were almost immediately taken to repair its effects and prevent its recurrence.

Captain Hall, who visited the scene just after the disaster, and again after an interval of fifteen years, thus speaks of the first appearance and of the change which industry had wrought during the interval: "We said to ourselves, that no time could ever restore their town (Martigny) to prosperity, or reclothe their fields with verdure. Yet, only fifteen years afterward, when I again visited this scene of utter, and, as it seemed, hopeless desolation, I could scarcely by any effort of the imagination recall the spot to my mind, or be persuaded that it really was the same ground I had seen laid waste. * * * * The fields were all again thickly matted with verdure; the hedges and dividing walls appeared never to have been disturbed; flower-gardens and kitchen-gardens and grass-plots smiled on every side of this happy valley; apple-trees, laden with fruit, and rows of tall poplars marked out many lines of new and better roads than before, leading from new bridges which formerly had no existence." The date of the first disaster was found inscribed upon a beam in one of the châlets, accompanied by a set of letters; the whole may be thus paraphrased: M. O. E. | 1595. | W. B. W. D. B. | T. G. O. G. The puzzle has been thus deciphered by a Swiss Monkbarns: Maurice Olliet erected, 1595, when Bagnes was destroyed by the glacier of Getroz.

Friburg lies between Vaud on the south and Berne on the north. It was the ninth canton admitted into the confederation. From having been the most aristocratic of all—some sixteen families governing seventy thousand people—it is now almost as liberal as Vaud. Suffrage is universal and the press is free. The religion of the state is Roman Catholic, the bishop still retaining the title of Bishop of Lausanne and Geneva. Party spirit, probably, run higher in this canton than in any other. The old aristocracy has its friends, though in the minority. The republicans, who triumphed in the revolution of 1830, excluded the clergy from the councils, but their influence still maintains a party there, and the church itself is divided between the rival influences of the Cordeliers and of the Jesuits. There are nine convents in the canton, a lyceum

or college and a boarding-school, in the capital. The clergy have not abandoned the claim, though deprived of the power to direct the secular instruction of the people, to license and displace their teachers. The struggles of these parties and influences keep up a constant political excitement.

It is difficult for a stranger who approaches the town of Friburg from the French cantons, on a day when the weekly fair is held, to believe that a scene of real life is before him. The old battlemented walls, with their towers, carry us back to the days of arquebusses and culverins, or even to those of cross-bows and catapults. The collection of peasants in the square, clad in the varied and picturesque costumes of the adjoining districts, keeps up the illusion. It is easy to realize that such looking people should sing and dance, but that they should buy and sell in earnest is not so easily credited. There is some poetry left yet in the exterior of life, at least in these countries. This thought was again awakened on finding myself in the cell of a monk in the convent of the Cordeliers. The vaulted ceiling, grated door, bare walls, the pallet bed and rude table, with missal and crucifix, the occupant clothed in coarse black serge, the cord of his order passing around his waist, produced a most singular effect. There was nothing in the manners and conversation of the venerable Father Girard to dispel any illusion created by the circumstances around him, unless the faintest possible tinge of the world, such as he may have got while superintending the schools of his canton just after the revolution of 1814. Hoping to dull the edge of party spirit which he supposed attacked the schools because a Cordelier was at the head of them, he retired into voluntary exile for ten years, and returned, at the age of seventy-two, to die, as he said, at home, when his years would be an apology for not mingling in public affairs. He had returned to find his schools in incompetent hands, almost in decay, and his normal school, from a similar cause, on the point of being abolished. Imbued with the spirit of Pestalozzi, Father Girard gives to the languages as instruments for intellectual training the part which the great master assigned to the sciences; for economy's sake he adopted the monitorial system, but hoped to see the time when it might give place to a better. In his retirement his influence with the intelligent men of Switzerland was very great, and was exercised to forward the intellectual progress of his country. "I love all men with Christian hearts, though they may not be orthodox in formulary; such is my profession of faith," was the catholic sentiment of this truly good man, reminding me of the beautiful lines of Wordsworth, written at Friburg:

"Doom'd as we are our native dust
To wet with many a bitter shower,
It ill befits us to disdain
The altar, to deride the fane
Where patient sufferers bend, in trust,
To win a happier hour.

* * * * * *

"Where'er we roam, along the brink
Of Rhine, or by the sweeping Po,
Through Alpine vale, or champaign wide—
Whate'er we look upon—at our side
Be charity—to bid as think,
And feel—if we would know."

The situation of Friburg has afforded opportunity for two pieces of characteristic enterprise. The channel of the river Sarine forms almost a loop at the town, inclosing it on three sides, and flowing in a deep sandstone valley. The town occupies the top and sides of the promontory thus formed, and on the steep slope the tops of the houses below are on a level with the pavement of the streets above. Into this valley the road to Berne formerly descended, and mounted a precipitous hill on the other side of the stream, occupying, with its windings and the slow pace by which it was necessarily traversed, an hour, and to pass from one side of the valley to the other, a distance in a straight line of some three hundred yards. A beautiful suspension bridge now connects the upper plateau of the town with a point equally high on the opposite bank, the suspending cables of wire being firmly fastened in the massive rock on either side, and passing over two neat piers of Jura limestone. This bridge was planned by an engineer of Lyons, but executed by Swiss workmen, and entirely with Swiss materials. The road-way is eight hundred and ninety-six feet in length between the piers, or two and a half times as long as the elegant structure of the same kind now erected over the Schuylkill at Philadelphia, and once and a half as long as the celebrated chain bridge over the Menai Strait in Wales. The road-way is suspended at the height of one hundred and seventy-four feet above the Saarine, and looking up from the valley the curved wire ropes which support the whole resemble mere cords projected against the sky, while the upright wires by which the platform hangs appear like cobwebs. The trials to which this structure was subjected by the authorities before receiving it were many and severe, the hardest that of marching across it two thousand people keeping step to music, the measured cadence producing a continually increasing vibration, and trying the strength to the utmost. The successful completion of this work and its durability have led to the erection of a second of the same kind at another point of the valley; so that this little town of nine thousand inhabitants may now boast of two of the most beautiful bridges in the world.

Berne, the capital of the largest and most populous canton of the Swiss confederacy, is, in appearance, thoroughly a Swiss town of the old school. Its site is a bold promontory, like that of Friburg, nearly surrounded by the Aar, a tributary of the Rhine. The appearance of Berne is very quaint. Entering it from the south, three gateways are passed in succession, at intervals from each other, beneath towers which mark so many epochs in the extension of the walled town. Before the

use of artillery Berne was a place of great strength, the site having been selected in the twelfth century for its military properties, by Berthold, of Zähringen, the founder of the city. The fronts of the houses in the principal streets, as in the Italian towns of the Middle Ages, rest upon arcades, which form covered walks for passengers. The heavy piers of the arcades render the shops dark, but this inconvenience is more than counterbalanced by the protection from the winter's snow in a town almost among the Alps, and at an elevation of sixteen hundred feet above the sea. The streets are provided at intervals with fountains of curious devices and rude execution, in which, besides the figure of *the bear* in various "armor and attitude," are warriors and goddesses, and remarkable above all, the terror of children, the great Kinder-fresser, or ogre, who, with the head and shoulders of one poor innocent in his gaping mouth, in the very act of swallowing, has a bag full of similar choice mouthfuls about his neck, apparently struggling to escape the fate of their comrade. In one of the towers is the famous clock of kindred taste with the ogre. Before each hour a cock flaps his wings and crows a warning. A figure representing Father Time reverses his hour glass, and opens his mouth as if to cry aloud to the careless. At noon is the grand procession of the bears, who, marshaled by knights and soldiers, issue to the sound of music and pass before the figure of Time first on all fours, then half erect, and finally rampant, figuring thus the different conditions of the town of which they are the patrons. The figure now raises a wand and strikes the hour upon a mimic bell, keeping time with the striking of the clock; the cock again flaps his wings, and for twenty-four hours the bears have rest. The regard for bruin in Berne has been the growth of ages. The accidental killing of a bear by the Duke of Zähringen on the day of founding the city placed the effigy upon the coat of arms, and perhaps gave name to the infant city, for Berne signifies bear in the Swabian dialect. The effigy of the bear was connected with the conquests of the warlike burghers, and the living animal kept to amuse the people by his antics. A whimsical old lady left a handsome estate to the town to maintain a family of bears, forever, and in 1798 the animal became associated with the misfortunes of the canton as it had been with its rise and prosperity. The savings from the estate of the bears shared the fate of those of the canton, when the French armies appropriated the thirty millions of specie in the vaults of the treasury. The bears themselves were removed from their ditch and transported to Paris, the huge cage containing the father of the family having upon it the insulting inscription, not yet forgotten by the people, of Avoyer (President) of Berne. One only lived to return to his home at the general restoration of the spoils of Europe, but the bears of the present generation appear to have forgiven or forgotten the sorrows of their parents, and, all unconscious of their own present dependent state, are as diligent in climbing poles, and as active in begging and quarreling for nuts and gingerbread as if the present bear-ditch had always

been the abode of both parents and cubs. How difficult it must be for the men of Berne among the scenes of the Middle Ages, and with history and tradition both fettering them, to keep up with the progress of the times; and yet they have done so in a very great degree, as a glance at the institutions of the republic will show.

In 1785 there were but two hundred and thirty-six families, the members of which were eligible to the grand council, the governing body of a canton of three hundred thousand inhabitants, and of its tributaries, Vaud inclusive. These were the descendants of the original burghers of Berne, and of those whom they had admitted from time to time into their fraternity. Many of them were members of one of the five guilds, the bakers, butchers, tanners, smiths, and carriers, originally an aristocracy of working men. Of the two hundred and thirty-six families only seventy-six were eligible to the executive or lesser council, and twenty of these, by the preponderance of numbers, governed the State. In 1796 there were twenty-two persons of the name and family of Steiger in the grand council, fifteen of Watwyl, and so on. It was certainly no easy task to undo the Gordian knot of such institutions, but the French invasion sundered it, and the complete separation of social and political ties which followed prevented a firm reunion of the parts. A feeble aristocratic government was rëstablished under the protection of Austria, after the French occupation ceased, and was continued until 1830. At this time the revolution of the three days in Paris gave a new impulse to popular institutions by the support which it promised to hold out to their friends. The people of the country parts of Berne met in their arrondissements and petitioned the government for an extension of popular rights. They were answered by prohibiting their assembling. They continued to meet, and the government ordered out the militia to suppress these meetings, and collecting their most trustworthy troops in the town, closed the gates and prepared the cannon upon the ramparts for action against the peasantry. The militia refused to turn out; the troops in the town declared their unwillingness to act against their countrymen. No attack was made, but the government wisely determined on abdication, declaring that on a certain day they would cease their functions if such was the will of the people. This was all that was desired. An assembly was called to frame a constitution, and without any violent shock, in October, 1831, the old aristocratic government gave place to the new republican, in which although there is some leaven of the former aristocracy, it is not sufficient to leaven the lump. This is a true history of a Swiss republican revolution. The new constitution declares the sovereignty of the people, the liberty of the press, the right of the representative council to originate measures, toleration of religion with an established national church. Every citizen is an elector of the first grade; and every hundred of them chooses an elector of the second grade, who votes for the representative council. As in the other cantons, with few exceptions, the

powers of government are mingled, and what strikes an American as even more strange, while the representative council is elected for six years, the judges chosen by them are elected but for five.

One of the first steps of the new government was to reorganize and renovate public instruction. A visit to the normal school established by them must inspire bright anticipations of future improvement for the country. Patriotism, religious and moral feeling, and intelligence, are developed by precept and example in those who are hereafter to have the training of the Bernese youth. The industrious life of these future teachers, eleven hours being spent in the school-room, in receiving or imparting instruction, their frugal fare, meat of any kind being placed before them but twice in each week, and their coarse clothing, are all shared with them by the director of the institution. Severe exercise in the open air, through the gymnastics so popular in Germany and Switzerland, counteracts, in a degree, the effect of this sedentary life upon their health. In addition to the branches usually cultivated in our schools, music is made a part of the teacher's education, that he may, in turn, give instruction in it to all his pupils. The effect produced by the deep toned and well tuned voices of the young teachers in this normal school, engaged in singing, *con amore*, some of the patriotic songs of their country, was one of the most moving that I ever experienced. What a fine material for republicans! was the remark of the counsellor of state who accompanied me, the echo of the very feeling which was thrilling through me. Close by this school is Hofwyl, the celebrated institution of Emmanuel Fellenberg. But to venture within its precincts would occupy you far longer than I am privileged to do. The system of this establishment, for it is not one school, but is composed of several schools of different grades, has served, in a degree, as a model for that of the canton, and has exerted a greater influence in and out of Switzerland than any other single institution in the world.

The new government has reorganized and improved many of the public establishments of the canton, and created new ones. Thus the two orphan houses of the city have already felt its favorable influence; a school for the deaf and dumb, and one for the blind, has been established under its patronage, and a new penitentiary has been erected for the introduction of the modern improvements in prison discipline. In 1819 women condemned for crimes swept the streets of Berne, and now the government is nearly prepared to adopt the Pennsylvania system of prison discipline. Surely the progress of this people has been worthy of, if not above, all praise.

On the eastern side of the town the bank of the Aar is quite precipitous, and from the parapet which crowns it a glimpse is had into that fairy-land, the Oberland of Berne. The peaks of its snow-clad hills, with their bold outline, cut sharply against the sky, presenting, in the course of a clear day, a beautiful variety of aspect, from the dark shadows cast by the rising sun, and the brilliancy of mid-day, to the delicate hues at

sunset, and the ashy and almost ghastly paleness of the evening. One of the few things which cannot disappoint is a visit to the Bernese Alps. Nature presents itself not only upon a grand scale, but in unusual and varied forms. Lofty and precipitous mountains, rugged with rocks, and ice, and snow; glaciers pushing their way from the steep mountain sides into the valleys; avalanches tumbling headlong from the heights, and with a roar like distant thunder burying their ice and snow in the deep gorges; cascades pouring from precipices so lofty that the water is dispersed in dust-like spray, in mid-air, or tumbling from rock to rock in foaming sheets; pine-clad hills, and valleys green with grass; all these, in turn, rejoice the sight, while the unaccustomed modes of Alpine traveling invigorate the frame, and the spirits rise until they create a world of enjoyment of their own. The works of man lend themselves to nature, to add to the picturesque character of these regions; for the Swiss cottage, with its roof weighted with stones, its projecting eaves and out-door galleries, is unlike a farm-house elsewhere, and the châlet, with its stable, dwelling, and dairy, all under one roof, yet separated with scrupulous regard to neatness, is as unlike a peasant's hut. The costume of the people, too, puts them to the eye of a stranger in constant masquerade, and the vocal music, with its curious falsetto tones, and the instrumental upon the wooden tube, or Alpine horn, are unlike what is to be heard in other countries.

The valley of Grindelwald is itself more than three thousand feet above the level of the sea, and from it the Faulhorn rises three thousand more. The ascent of this mountain is by winding paths, along the base or on the brink of high rocks, by the side of ponds formed by the melting snow, through the snows themselves, to the very apex. Then the whole district of the lakes of Brientz and Thun is stretched out before and far below you, the lake of Lucerne and its mountains, the valleys of Lauterbrunnen and Grindelwald, the Alpine heights of the Eiger, the Monk, the Jungfrau, and others of this chain, far across to the mountains where the Rhine and the Rhone both have their sources. Above the region where the white hill-clouds of summer are formed and rest, when *they* occur spreading a deep shade over the valleys below, the top of the Faulhorn is in the full blaze of the sun, and the eye ranges from it upon the expanse of the tops of the white clouds, as over a vast plain of snow thrown into ridges by the wind, a mimic ocean of snow with the forms of waves without their motion. Life in a châlet upon such a mountain is very little like that in an inn down in the valley. The whole mountain-top will hardly give elbow-room to the twenty or thirty people who come up on a fine summer's day, much less will the châlet give room for exclusiveness in eating, drinking, or sleeping. Then, further, to break down reserve, the sunset is to be seen by all, and then the moon, at rising or setting, puts the whole sleeping household in motion, and again all are out to see the sun rise over the distant Alps.

There are some traits by which one may infallibly recognize our coun-

trymen, and in this châlet with us was an undoubted American. He talked to every one who could speak his vernacular, and spoke to every one who would give his broken French an answer. His meals were bolted down in haste. He fidgeted lest he should lose anything of the moon or sun rise, and actually turned out to witness the former in regular Kickapoo style, wrapped in a blanket. He was restless to an excess, and talked all the time that others were absorbed in sentiment; forgetting his unpresentable condition, he even addressed some young English ladies, who had certainly offered no special encouragement to the approach of any fellow-traveller, even in full costume. He was off among the first in the morning, and after the day's journey we met him in the evening at Meyringen, still talkative as ever, and his tones certifying that he came from the east of the Hudson; so far, the very beau-ideal of the American figured by tourists. Here, however, he piqued my curiosity by the very un-American act of abusing the supper, as well as by some peculiarity of expression; and, entering into further conversation with him, I found that this *undoubted* American was last from Thread and Needle street, had been born and bred in the old country, and had not even trodden our republican soil. So much for national characteristics, which, like family peculiarities, may sometimes lead us to mistake the father for the son.

On the way from the Oberland to Lucerne we pass a work of improvement well worthy of notice. At the foot of the Brunig Mountain, on the north side, is the small lake of Lungern, draining the slopes of a basin of moderate extent, and having originally no outlet. It is separated by a mountain ridge from the lake of Sarnen, which communicates with the lake of Lucerne. Lake Lungern is some four hundred feet higher than Lake Sarnen, so that by establishing a communication between them the former might be drained to any required amount, and arable land be thus gained upon the lake shore. A tunnel to establish this connection was begun in 1788, and after many delays was completed in 1836, at the cost of $25,000, and nineteen thousand days' work by the peasants. The winter season, when the lake is lowest, was chosen for completing the tunnel by breaking through a rocky barrier into Lake Lungern. The undertaking succeeded, and in ten days the water fell to the level of the mouth of the tunnel. A new and unforeseen danger now threatened the people of the village on the lake shore. The bank, no longer supported by the water, and exposed to the action of the frost, began to crack, and the earth separating from the underlying rock, threatened to precipitate the church and part of the village into the lake. In fact a slide did take place, but only to a limited extent, and by cutting the shores in terraces the progress of the evil has been stopped, and the gain of about five hundred acres of arable land may be considered as permanent.

The town of Lucerne, the capital of the canton of the same name, and formerly in rotation with Berne and Zurich, the seat of the sessions of the

Swiss Diet, is beautifully situated on the lake of the Forest cantons, on a level piece of ground, at the point where the Reuss issues from the lake to join the Limmat in its course to the Rhine. Lucerne, on a gala day, presents an interesting sight to the stranger. When I saw it, the people in holiday dress were collecting from all quarters to the lake side; the long wooden bridges which join the different parts of the town, and the stone-lined quays along the Reuss, were thronged with people pressing toward the same point. The women from the country wearing the hair plaited on the crown of the head, or black caps with mohair lace wings, and long plaits of hair and black ribbons falling down the back, accompanied by men in plain attire, all speaking the harsh patois derived from the Southern German. Even the bridge from the Abbey had its passengers, though now few indeed in numbers, and a few Cordeliers were seen mingling with the throng. The windows of the tall houses near the wharf presented an array of the notables of Lucerne, and even some members of the diet might be pointed out to the stranger. The bells were ringing at intervals, and cannon pointed toward the lake were prepared for a salute. The American smiles complacently when told the cause of all this circumstance. The first steamboat navigating the lake is expected on its first return trip from Altdorf, and even now may be seen rounding a neighboring point. The excitement increases as the wonderful boat approaches, and we are carried in imagination back to the days of 1807, when New York poured out its population to greet the return of the first adventure of the great Fulton. No doubt now mingles, as then it did, with expectation, and amid the hoarse noise of loud German exclamations and hurrahs, and the discharge of artillery, the boat approaches. It is wonderful to see how at once the art of managing the vessel has been acquired! How imitative a creature man is! The captain is mounted upon the wheel-guard directing the pilot and engineer with his hand. The headway is checked judiciously, and now the boat nears the wharf. With what precision and skill this manœuvre is executed for the first time! The thought is hardly complete, when rising loud and clear above the hoarse gutturals of the mob, comes to do away all mystery, to explain the whole, in good homespun English, the well-known cry of "Stop her!" The engine was built in England, put up by Englishmen, and is now managed in its first trial by them; and thus the mechanics and manufacturers of that great nation lay not only Switzerland, but all the continent of Europe, under contribution, as a return for the money spent abroad by her travelers.

The Swiss Confederacy is, politically considered, even a weaker government than ours was under the old Articles of Confederation; at all events weaker for every purpose not merely military. The act of confederation now in force dates from 1815, and all the attempts made since its adoption to modify it so as to produce a stronger government, by cementing the union more closely, have failed. The cantonal spirit resists the least encroachments upon its independence. The act of con-

federation guarantees to each canton its liberty, its independence, its safety from foreign aggression, and peace and tranquillity within. To maintain this guarantee and to preserve the armed neutrality of Switzerland, a contingent of 33,000 men and $140,000 is required from the cantons in proportion to their population and other circumstances. The modified constitution declared every Swiss to be a soldier, expressing only what is the fact, the military spirit being kept constantly alive from the belief that it is essential to the independence of the country. In case of the invasion of a canton, or of violence against the actual government, the confederation is bound, upon a summons, to an armed intervention; and, in case of necessity, a neighboring canton may lend its aid. This provision has been a fertile source of difficulty, for on the one hand the cantons claim the right of revolution, and, on the other, the diet that of intervention. The cantons have no right to form leagues with each other. No privileged classes may be established in any of them. The transit of articles of merchandise and manufactures, and of the necessaries of life, through the different cantons is guaranteed. Such are the leading articles of the constitution.

The diet is the highest authority of the confederacy, and consists of deputies from the twenty-two cantons, who vote, unless specially invested with discretionary power, according to instructions derived from the cantonal governments. Each canton has one vote in the diet. The regular meetings of this body are held yearly, and the senior deputy of the canton where the meeting is held presides. Executive power during the recess of the diet may be vested in the authorities of the canton where the meeting of the year is to be held, or in a special executive council. The diet declares war and makes treaties of peace and alliance; such measures requiring a majority of three-fourths of the votes.*

In the summer of 1837 the diet met at Lucerne. The stormy session of the year before at Berne, in which they had borne themselves so gallantly in opposition to the demands of France, was still fresh in the recollection; but with the adjustment of the difficulties the excitement produced by them had subsided. On that occasion it was said that Switzerland had spoken even in a boasting tone, or, in the language of the French journalists, as if she were a first-rate power instead of a fourth. The national feeling which dictated this tone may be explained and felt by the remark of Professor Monnard, of Vaud, by whom the

* The foregoing remarks apply to the political condition of the Swiss Confederation previous to the 12th of September, 1848, when the revised federal constitution now in force was adopted. This instrument is very similar to that of the United States, only paying somewhat more deference to states rights, and vesting the executive power in a cabinet (federal council) elected by congress in joint session, the chairman whereof being denominated President of Switzerland. The legislative authority is vested in a federal assembly, (congress,) composed of a national council (house of representatives) and a staenderath or States council, (senate;) the supreme court and executive authority being both elected by the federal assembly or congress, in joint session, in which is vested the supreme power of the land. Berne is the permanent capital.

threatening language was spoken, "we cannot recognize a first-rate and a second-rate national honor."

There is still something of the "feudalism of democracy," as a distinguished author has called it, in the ceremonies of the diet, walking in procession to their hall where their deliberations take place, wearing cloaks embroided with the arms of their cantons, and even of more than one color, received by double rows of guards, and deliberating with swords by their sides. The antiquated costumes are destined to disappear with many feudal forms, but the delegates from those cantons, the democratic, where the least change has taken place in their institutions, are wedded to their old garments as well as to the old constitution. In the hall of meeting twenty-one seats are arranged about an oval table for the senior representatives, the president having his seat at the one extremity of the table, and the consulting deputies occupying small tables in the rear. The members do not rise when addressing the chair, which has an awkward effect, and must be embarrassing to the lively delegates of the Italian and French cantons; but all minor embarrassments yield to that of the use of three different languages, the French, German, and Italian, by members from the different cantons, while a majority of the deputies understand but one. A glance at these representatives will illustrate the difficulties of forming a Swiss union. What has the man of Tessin really in common with him of Geneva? The one is a Roman Catholic, the other a Calvinist; the one a republican of the most democratic school, the other an aristocrat by principle, and perhaps by birth; the one is from a rough pastoral or agricultural district, the other from a city where the more refined mechanic arts flourish; the one from a small community, all the members of which are nearly equal in the means of life and in education, the other from a town where wealth and education are very unequally distributed; the one in speech an Italian, the other a Frenchman. Again, what has the educated and polished professor of Lausanne, or the merchant and banker of Basle, in common with the peasant of Appenzele or the shepherd of Uri? With all these diversities they are brought together in part by a sentiment—the love of liberty; in part by a necessity—that of mutual defense. The progress of the cantons in education and the arts of life will doubtless draw their bonds gradually closer, and to have attempted a union in 1832 is to have laid the basis for it at some other time. Meanwhile the confederation, if it does not directly aid the cantons in their career of improvement, at least goes far to guarantee the continuation of that peace which is essential to progress.

Let us turn our backs upon the mountains, to glance merely, for that is all that can be attempted, at Zurich, one of the cantons of the plain, if any part of Switzerland can be called a plain; one of the farthest advanced of all in the mechanic arts, manufactures, education, and good government. Here the republican change was brought about in 1830, by a simple change of administration, the council not being required to

abdicate as at Berne, and up to this time a struggle for power goes on between the partisans of a former order of things and the clergy against the new order, and, from time to time, one or the other influence prevails. The canton, meanwhile, steadily advances. Suffrage is universal; the right to vote beginning at twenty years of age.

The progress of the canton since the new order of things may be best illustrated by a few facts. The press is free, the legislative, executive, and judicial departments have been separated, public instruction has been set forth as one of the first duties of the state, and invasion of domicile has been declared unlawful. To these intellectual improvements may be added physical or material ones; good roads have been made throughout the canton and stage coaches put upon them, so that instead of ten or twelve people leaving Zurich, or entering it, per day, there are now one hundred and ten. The poor tax is at the rate of but 5 cents per annum for each citizen inhabiting the canton; the church rate 18 cents; and the expense of the civil list 20 cents. Finally the revenue in 1832 exceeded the expenditure by $100,000, and this surplus has been devoted to the cause of material and intellectual improvement.

From the hasty and imperfect glance which we have now taken together of republican Switzerland, what conclusion may we draw as to the capacity of the principle which connects these people, to produce their happiness, their moral, intellectual, and physical improvement?

In the distance which separates us from them the minuter shades of character are lost. We do not discern the men of Geneva, of Vaud, of Berne, and of Zurich, but the men of Switzerland. Standing out from the picture, like the lofty summits of their own mountain chains, are the prominent characteristics of the people. Frugality, perseverance, hardy enterprise, high moral and religious feeling, lofty patriotism; these are the characteristics of the Swiss nation.

How far these noble qualities are the result of their political institutions, or whether the institutions owe their origin to these very qualities of the people, it is needless to inquire, since what greater praise can be awarded than the truth, that the institutions of Switzerland are in harmony with the free spirit of the people, and the spirit of the people with their noble republican institutions.

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